Chapter 5: outline

5.1 introduction
5.2 routing protocols
- link state
- distance vector

5.3 intra-AS routing in the Internet: OSPF
5.4 routing among the ISPs: BGP
5.5 The SDN control plane
5.6 ICMP: The Internet Control Message Protocol
5.7 Network management and SNMP

5.2 routing protocols
- link state
- distance vector

Routing protocols

Routing protocol goal: determine "good" paths (equivalently, routes), from sending hosts to receiving host, through network of routers
- path: sequence of routers packets will traverse in going from given initial source host to given final destination host
- "good": least "cost", "fastest", "least congested"

Network-layer functions

Recall: two network-layer functions:
- *forwarding:* move packets from router's input to appropriate router output — *data plane*
- *routing:* determine route taken by packets from source to destination — *control plane*

Two approaches to structuring network control plane:
- per-router control (traditional)
- logically centralized control (software defined networking)

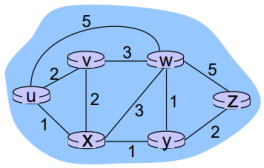
Per-router control plane

Individual routing algorithm components *in each and every router* interact with each other in control plane to compute forwarding tables

Logically centralized control plane

A distinct (typically remote) controller interacts with local control agents (CAs) in routers to compute forwarding tables

Graph abstraction of the network



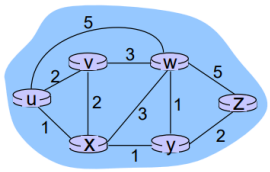
graph: G = (N,E)

N = set of routers = { u, v, w, x, y, z }

E = set of links ={ (u,v), (u,x), (v,x), (v,w), (x,w), (x,y), (w,y), (w,z), (y,z) }

aside: graph abstraction is useful in other network contexts, e.g., P2P, where *N* is set of peers and *E* is set of TCP connections

Graph abstraction: costs



c(x,x') = cost of link (x,x')
e.g., c(w,z) = 5

cost could always be 1, or inversely related to bandwidth, or inversely related to congestion

cost of path $(x_1, x_2, x_3, \ldots, x_p) = c(x_1,x_2) + c(x_2,x_3) + \ldots + c(x_{p-1},x_p)$

key question: what is the least-cost path between u and z ?
routing algorithm: algorithm that finds that least cost path

Routing algorithm classification

Q: global or decentralized information?

global:
- all routers have complete topology, link cost info
- "link state" algorithms

decentralized:
- router knows physically-connected neighbors, link costs to neighbors
- iterative process of computation, exchange of info with neighbors
- "distance vector" algorithms

Q: static or dynamic?

static:
- routes change slowly over time

dynamic:
- routes change more quickly
  - periodic update
  - in response to link cost changes

A link-state routing algorithm

Dijkstra's algorithm
- net topology, link costs known to all nodes
  - accomplished via "link state broadcast"
  - all nodes have same info
- computes least cost paths from one node ('source") to all other nodes
  - gives *forwarding table* for that node
- iterative: after k iterations, know least cost path to k dest.'s

notation:
- c(x,y): link cost from node x to y; = ∞ if not direct neighbors
- D(v): current value of cost of path from source to dest. v
- p(v): predecessor node along path from source to v
- N': set of nodes whose least cost path definitively known

Dijsktra's algorithm

```
1  Initialization:
2   N' = {u}
3   for all nodes v
4    if v adjacent to u
5       then D(v) = c(u,v)
6    else D(v) = ∞
7
8  Loop
9   find w not in N' such that D(w) is a minimum
10  add w to N'
11  update D(v) for all v adjacent to w and not in N'
12    D(v) = min( D(v), D(w) + c(w,v) )
13  /* new cost to v is either old cost to v or known
14   shortest path cost to w plus cost from w to v */
15 until all nodes in N'
```

Distance vector algorithm

Bellman-Ford equation (dynamic programming)

let
$d_x(y)$:= cost of least-cost path from x to y
then

$$d_x(y) = \min_v \{c(x,v) + d_v(y)\}$$

$c(x,v)$: cost to neighbor v
$d_v(y)$: cost from neighbor v to destination y
min taken over all neighbors v of x

Comparision B/W Dijikstra vs Bell-Forman

- Trong thuật toán Bellman-Ford, các cạnh của đồ thị có thể có giá trị âm. Một trong những ưu điểm chính của thuật toán này là khả năng xử lý các đồ thị có cạnh âm, điều mà nhiều thuật toán khác như Dijkstra không thể làm được.
- Bellman-Ford cũng có thể phát hiện chu trình âm (negative cycle) trong đồ thị - là một chu trình mà tổng trọng số các cạnh là âm
- Cạnh âm khi: Mô hình hóa chi phí; Tối ưu hóa tài chính;

Hierarchical OSPF

- *two-level hierarchy:* local area, backbone.
  - link-state advertisements only in area
  - each nodes has detailed area topology; only know direction (shortest path) to nets in other areas.
- *area border routers:* "summarize" distances to nets in own area, advertise to other Area Border routers.
- *backbone routers:* run OSPF routing limited to backbone.
- *boundary routers:* connect to other AS'es.

5.3 intra-AS routing in the Internet: OSPF

Internet approach to scalable routing

aggregate routers into regions known as "autonomous systems" (AS) (a.k.a. "domains")

intra-AS routing
- routing among hosts, routers in same AS ("network")
- all routers in AS must run *same* intra-domain protocol
- routers in *different* AS can run *different* intra-domain routing protocol
- gateway router: at "edge" of its own AS, has link(s) to router(s) in other AS'es

inter-AS routing
- routing among AS'es
- gateways perform inter-domain routing (as well as intra-domain routing)

forwarding table configured by both intra- and inter-AS routing algorithm
- intra-AS routing determine entries for destinations within AS
- inter-AS & intra-AS determine entries for external destinations

Inter-AS tasks

- suppose router in AS1 receives datagram destined outside of AS1:
  - router should forward packet to gateway router, but which one?

AS1 must:
1. learn which dests are reachable through AS2 and which through AS3?
2. propagate this reachability info to all routers in AS1

job of inter-AS routing!

Intra-AS Routing

- also known as *interior gateway protocols (IGP)*
- most common intra-AS routing protocols:
  - RIP: Routing Information Protocol
  - OSPF: Open Shortest Path First (IS-IS protocol essentially same as OSPF)
  - IGRP: Interior Gateway Routing Protocol (Cisco proprietary for decades, until 2016)

OSPF (Open Shortest Path First)

- "open": publicly available
- uses link-state algorithm
  - link state packet dissemination
  - topology map at each node
  - route computation using Dijkstra's algorithm
- router floods OSPF link-state advertisements to all other routers in *entire* AS
  - carried in OSPF messages directly over IP (rather than TCP or UDP
  - link state: for each attached link
- *IS-IS routing* protocol: nearly identical to OSPF

OSPF "advanced" features

- *security:* all OSPF messages authenticated (to prevent malicious intrusion)
- multiple same-cost paths allowed (only one path in RIP)
- for each link, multiple cost metrics for different TOS (e.g., satellite link cost set low for best effort ToS; high for real-time ToS)
- integrated uni- and multi-cast support:
  - Multicast OSPF (MOSPF) uses same topology data base as OSPF
- hierarchical OSPF in large domains.

5.4 routing among the ISPs: BGP

Internet inter-AS routing: BGP

- BGP (Border Gateway Protocol): *the* de facto inter-domain routing protocol
  - "glue that holds the Internet together"
- BGP provides each AS a means to:
  - eBGP: obtain subnet reachability information from neighboring ASes
  - iBGP: propagate reachability information to all AS-internal routers.
  - determine "good" routes to other networks based on reachability information and *policy*
- allows subnet to advertise its existence to rest of Internet: *"I am here"*

BGP basics

- BGP session: two BGP routers ("peers") exchange BGP messages over semi-permanent TCP connection:
  - advertising *paths* to different destination network prefixes (BGP is a "path vector" protocol)
- when AS3 gateway router 3a advertises path AS3,X to AS2 gateway router 2c:
  - AS3 *promises* to AS2 it will forward datagrams towards X

BGP messages

- BGP messages exchanged between peers over TCP connection
- BGP messages:
  - OPEN: opens TCP connection to remote BGP peer and authenticates sending BGP peer
  - UPDATE: advertises new path (or withdraws old)
  - KEEPALIVE: keeps connection alive in absence of UPDATES; also ACKs OPEN request
  - NOTIFICATION: reports errors in previous msg; also used to close connection

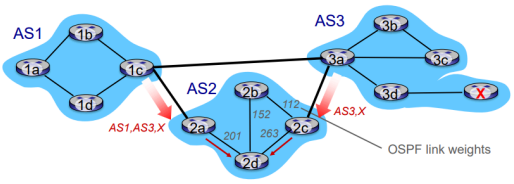
Path attributes and BGP routes

- advertised prefix includes BGP attributes
  - prefix + attributes = "route"
- two important attributes:
  - AS-PATH: list of ASes through which prefix advertisement has passed
  - NEXT-HOP: indicates specific internal-AS router to next-hop AS
- *Policy-based routing:*
  - gateway receiving route advertisement uses *import policy* to accept/decline path (e.g., never route through AS Y).
  - AS policy also determines whether to *advertise* path to other neighboring ASes

BGP route selection

- router may learn about more than one route to destination AS, selects route based on:
  1. local preference value attribute: policy decision
  2. shortest AS-PATH
  3. closest NEXT-HOP router: hot potato routing
  4. additional criteria

Hot Potato Routing



- 2d learns (via iBGP) it can route to X via 2a or 2c
- *hot potato routing:* choose local gateway that has least intra-domain cost (e.g., 2d chooses 2a, even though more AS hops to X): don't worry about inter-domain cost!

Why different Intra-, Inter-AS routing ?

policy:

- inter-AS: admin wants control over how its traffic routed, who routes through its net.
- intra-AS: single admin, so no policy decisions needed

scale:

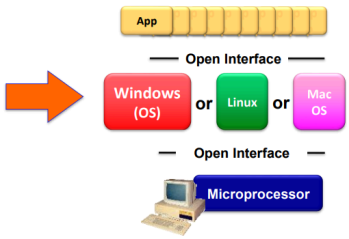
- hierarchical routing saves table size, reduced update traffic

performance:

- intra-AS: can focus on performance
- inter-AS: policy may dominate over performance

Analogy: mainframe to PC evolution*

Vertically integrated
Closed, proprietary
Slow innovation
Small industry



Horizontal
Open interfaces
Rapid innovation
Huge industry

5.5 The SDN control plane

Software defined networking (SDN)

- Internet network layer: historically has been implemented via distributed, per-router approach
  - *monolithic* router contains switching hardware, runs proprietary implementation of Internet standard protocols (IP, RIP, IS-IS, OSPF, BGP) in proprietary router OS (e.g., Cisco IOS)
  - different "middleboxes" for different network layer functions: firewalls, load balancers, NAT boxes, ..

Why a logically centralized control plane?

- easier network management: avoid router misconfigurations, greater flexibility of traffic flows
- table-based forwarding (recall OpenFlow API) allows "programming" routers
  - centralized "programming" easier: compute tables centrally and distribute
  - distributed "programming: more difficult: compute tables as result of distributed algorithm (protocol) implemented in each and every router
- open (non-proprietary) implementation of control plane

Data plane switches

- fast, simple, commodity switches implementing generalized data-plane forwarding (Section 4.4) in hardware
- switch flow table computed, installed by controller
- API for table-based switch control (e.g., OpenFlow)
  - defines what is controllable and what is not
- protocol for communicating with controller (e.g., OpenFlow)

SDN controller (network OS):

- maintain network state information
- interacts with network control applications "above" via northbound API
- interacts with network switches "below" via southbound API
- implemented as distributed system for performance, scalability, fault-tolerance, robustness

network-control apps:

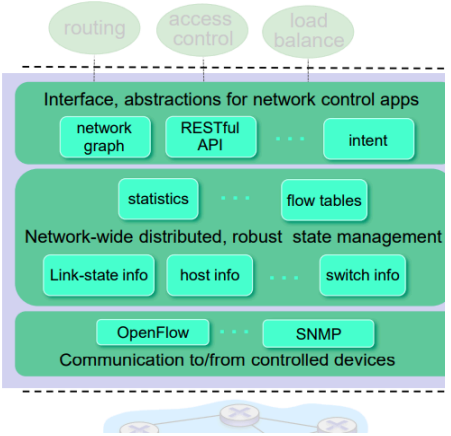
- "brains" of control: implement control functions using lower-level services, API provided by SND controller
- *unbundled:* can be provided by 3rd party; and distinct from routing vendor, or SDN controller.

Components of SDN controller

Interface layer to network control apps: abstractions API

Network-wide state management layer: state of networks links, switches, services: a *distributed database*

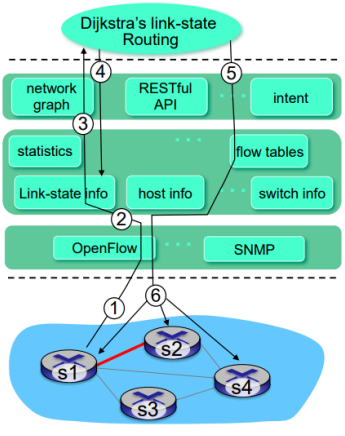
communication layer: communicate between SDN controller and controlled switches



OpenFlow protocol

- operates between controller, switch
- TCP used to exchange messages
  - optional encryption
- three classes of OpenFlow messages:
  - controller-to-switch
  - asynchronous (switch to controller)
  - symmetric (misc)

SDN: control/data plane interaction example



1. S1, experiencing link failure using OpenFlow port status message to notify controller
2. SDN controller receives OpenFlow message, updates link status info
3. Dijkstra's routing algorithm application has previously registered to be called when ever link status changes. It is called.
4. Dijkstra's routing algorithm access network graph info, link state info in controller, computes new routes
5. link state routing app interacts with flow-table-computation component in SDN controller, which computes new flow tables needed
6. Controller uses OpenFlow to install new tables in switches that need updating

ONOS controller

- control apps separate from controller
- intent framework: high-level specification of service: what rather than how
- considerable emphasis on distributed core: service reliability, replication performance scaling

5.6 ICMP: The Internet Control Message Protocol

- used by hosts & routers to communicate network-level information
  - error reporting: unreachable host, network, port, protocol
  - echo request/reply (used by ping)
- network-layer "above" IP:
  - ICMP msgs carried in IP datagrams
- ICMP message: type, code plus first 8 bytes of IP datagram causing error

Type	Code	description
0	0	echo reply (ping)
3	0	dest. network unreachable
3	1	dest host unreachable
3	2	dest protocol unreachable
3	3	dest port unreachable
3	6	dest network unknown
3	7	dest host unknown
4	0	source quench (congestion control - not used)
8	0	echo request (ping)
9	0	route advertisement
10	0	router discovery
11	0	TTL expired
12	0	bad IP header

5.7 Network management and SNMP

"Network management includes the deployment, integration and coordination of the hardware, software, and human elements to monitor, test, poll, configure, analyze, evaluate, and control the network and element resources to meet the real-time, operational performance, and Quality of Service requirements at a reasonable cost."

SNMP protocol: message types

Message type	Function
GetRequest GetNextRequest GetBulkRequest	manager-to-agent: "get me data" (data instance, next data in list, block of data)
InformRequest	manager-to-manager: here's MIB value
SetRequest	manager-to-agent: set MIB value
Response	Agent-to-manager: value, response to Request
Trap	Agent-to-manager: inform manager of exceptional event

Traceroute and ICMP

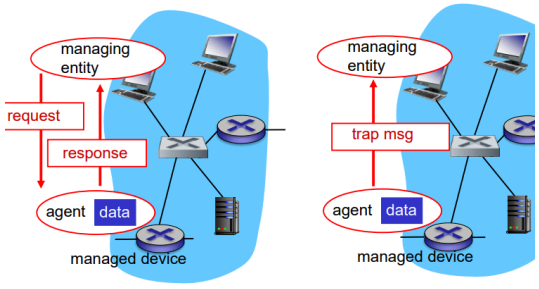
- source sends series of UDP segments to destination
  - first set has TTL =1
  - second set has TTL=2, etc.
  - unlikely port number
- when datagram in *n*th set arrives to nth router:
  - router discards datagram and sends source ICMP message (type 11, code 0)
  - ICMP message include name of router & IP address
- when ICMP message arrives, source records RTTs

stopping criteria:

- UDP segment eventually arrives at destination host
- destination returns ICMP "port unreachable" message (type 3, code 3)
- source stops

SNMP protocol

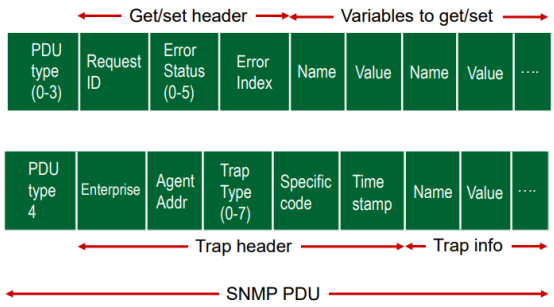
Two ways to convey MIB info, commands:



request/response mode | trap mode

Chapter 5 Network Layer: The Control Plane

SNMP protocol: message formats



Chapter 6 The Link Layer and LANs

6.1 introduction, services
6.2 error detection, correction
6.3 multiple access protocols
6.4 LANs
- addressing, ARP
- Ethernet
- switches
- VLANS

6.5 link virtualization: MPLS
6.6 data center networking
6.7 a day in the life of a web request

Link layer: introduct

terminology:

- hosts and routers: nodes
- communication channels that connect adjacent nodes along communication path: links
  - wired links
  - wireless links
  - LANs
- layer-2 packet: frame, encapsulates datagram

data-link layer has responsibility of transferring datagram from one node to *physically adjacent* node over a link

Link layer: context

- datagram transferred by different link protocols over different links:
  - e.g., Ethernet on first link, frame relay on intermediate links, 802.11 on last link
- each link protocol provides different services
  - e.g., may or may not provide rdt over link

transportation analogy:

- trip from Princeton to Lausanne
  - limo: Princeton to JFK
  - plane: JFK to Geneva
  - train: Geneva to Lausanne
- tourist = datagram
- transport segment = communication link
- transportation mode = link layer protocol
- travel agent = routing algorithm

Link layer services

- *framing, link access:*
  - encapsulate datagram into frame, adding header, trailer
  - channel access if shared medium
  - "MAC" addresses used in frame headers to identify source, destination
    - different from IP address!
- *reliable delivery between adjacent nodes*
  - we learned how to do this already (chapter 3)!
  - seldom used on low bit-error link (fiber, some twisted pair)
  - wireless links: high error rates
- *flow control:*
  - pacing between adjacent sending and receiving nodes
- *error detection:*
  - errors caused by signal attenuation, noise.
  - receiver detects presence of errors:
    - signals sender for retransmission or drops frame
- *error correction:*
  - receiver identifies *and corrects* bit error(s) without resorting to retransmission
- *half-duplex and full-duplex*
  - with half duplex, nodes at both ends of link can transmit, but not at same time

Where is the link layer implemented?

- in each and every host
- link layer implemented in "adaptor" (aka *network interface card* NIC) or on a chip
  - Ethernet card, 802.11 card; Ethernet chipset
  - implements link, physical layer
- attaches into host's system buses
- combination of hardware, software, firmware

Adaptors communicating

sending side:
- encapsulates datagram in frame
- adds error checking bits, rdt, flow control, etc.

receiving side
- looks for errors, rdt, flow control, etc.
- extracts datagram, passes to upper layer at receiving side

Parity checking

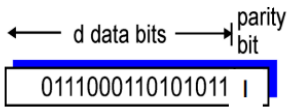
6.2 error detection, correction

EDC= Error Detection and Correction bits (redundancy)
D = Data protected by error checking, may include header fields

• Error detection not 100% reliable!
  • protocol may miss some errors, but rarely
  • larger EDC field yields better detection and correction

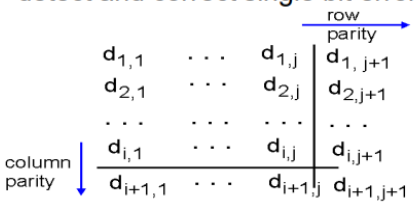
single bit parity:

- detect single bit errors



two-dimensional bit parity:

- detect and correct single bit errors



Internet checksum (review)

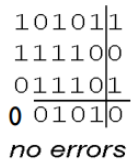
goal: detect "errors" (e.g., flipped bits) in transmitted packet (note: used at transport layer only)

sender:
- treat segment contents as sequence of 16-bit integers
- checksum: addition (1's complement sum) of segment contents
- sender puts checksum value into UDP checksum field

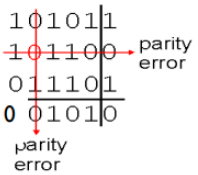
receiver:
- compute checksum of received segment
- check if computed checksum equals checksum field value:
  - NO - error detected
  - YES - no error detected. *But maybe errors nonetheless?*

Cyclic redundancy check

- more powerful error-detection coding
- view data bits, D, as a binary number
- choose r+1 bit pattern (generator), G
- goal: choose r CRC bits, R, such that
  - <D,R> exactly divisible by G (modulo 2)
  - receiver knows G, divides <D,R> by G. If non-zero remainder: error detected!
  - can detect all burst errors less than r+1 bits
- widely used in practice (Ethernet, 802.11 WiFi, ATM)

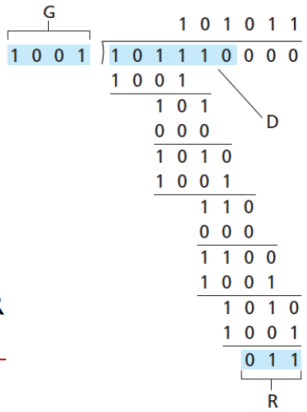


no errors



correctable single bit error

CRC example



want:
$D \cdot 2^r$ XOR R = nG

equivalently:
$D \cdot 2^r$ = nG XOR R

equivalently:
if we divide $D \cdot 2^r$ by G, want remainder R to satisfy:

$$R = remainder\left[\frac{D \cdot 2^r}{G}\right]$$

6.3 multiple access protocols

two types of "links":
- point-to-point
  - PPP (Point-to-Point Prtocol) for dial-up access
  - point-to-point link between Ethernet switch, host
- *broadcast (shared wire or medium)*
  - old-fashioned Ethernet (bus network)
  - upstream HFC
  - 802.11 wireless LAN

Multiple access protocols

single shared broadcast channel

two or more simultaneous transmissions by nodes produce interference and *collision* if node receives two or more signals at the same time

ultiple access protocol

distributed algorithm that determines how nodes share channel, i.e., determine when node can transmit

communication about channel sharing must use channel itself!
- no out-of-band channel for coordination

MAC protocols: taxonomy

three broad classes:
- *channel partitioning*
  - divide channel into smaller "pieces" (time slots, frequency, code)
  - allocate piece to node for exclusive use
- *random access*
  - channel not divided, allow collisions
  - "recover" from collisions
- *"taking turns"*
  - nodes take turns, but nodes with more to send can take longer turns

Channel partitioning MAC protocols: TDMA

TDMA: time division multiple access

- access to channel in "rounds"
- each station gets fixed length slot (length = packet transmission time) in each round
- unused slots go idle
- example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have packets to send, slots 2,5,6 idle

FDMA: frequency division multiple access

- channel spectrum divided into frequency bands
- each station assigned fixed frequency band
- unused transmission time in frequency bands go idle
- example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have packet to send, frequency bands 2,5,6 idle

Random access protocols

- when node has packet to send
  - transmit at full channel data rate R.
  - no *a priori* coordination among nodes
- two or more transmitting nodes ➜ "collision"
- random access MAC protocol specifies:
  - how to detect collisions
  - how to recover from collisions (e.g., via delayed retransmissions)
- examples of random access MAC protocols:
  - slotted ALOHA
  - ALOHA
  - CSMA, CSMA/CD, CSMA/CA

Slotted ALOHA

assumptions:
- all frames same size
- time divided into equal size slots (time to transmit 1 frame)
- nodes start to transmit only slot beginning
- nodes are synchronized
- if 2 or more nodes transmit in slot, all nodes detect collision

operation:
- when node obtains fresh frame, transmits in next slot
  - *if no collision:* node can send new frame in next slot
  - *if collision:* node retransmits frame in each subsequent slot with probability *p* until success

efficiency: long-run fraction of successful slots (many nodes, all with many frames to send)

Pros:
- single active node can continuously transmit at full rate of channel
- highly decentralized: only slots in nodes need to be in sync
- simple

Cons:
- collisions, wasting slots
- idle slots
- nodes may be able to detect collision in less than time to transmit packet
- clock synchronization

Pure (unslotted) ALOHA

- unslotted Aloha: simpler, no synchronization
- when frame first arrives
  - transmit immediately
- collision probability increases:
  - frame sent at t_0 collides with other frames sent in $[t_0-1, t_0+1]$

Pure ALOHA efficiency

P(success by given node) = P(node transmits) ·
P(no other node transmits in $[t_0-1, t_0]$ ·
P(no other node transmits in $[t_0-1, t_0]$

$= p \cdot (1-p)^{N-1} \cdot (1-p)^{N-1}$
$= p \cdot (1-p)^{2(N-1)}$

... choosing optimum p and then letting $n \to \infty$

$= 1/(2e) = .18$

1A (carrier sense multiple access)

CSMA: listen before transmit:
if channel sensed idle: transmit entire frame
- if channel sensed busy, defer transmission

- human analogy: don't interrupt others!

CSMA collisions

- collisions *can* still occur: propagation delay means two nodes may not hear each other's transmission.
- collision: entire packet transmission time wasted.
- Distance & propagation delay play role in determining collision probability.

Điều này có nghĩa là trong mạng máy tính, khi hai nút (nodes) truyền dữ liệu cùng một lúc, có thể xảy ra va chạm (collision) vì độ trễ truyền dẫn (propagation delay). Độ trễ này khiến cho hai nút không nghe thấy tín hiệu của nhau kịp thời, dẫn đến việc cả hai cùng truyền dữ liệu vào mạng cùng lúc, gây ra va chạm.

When collision => the entire packet transmission time is wasted

CSMA/CD (collision detection)

CSMA/CD: Carrier Sensing, deferral as in CSMA
- collisions *detected* within short time
- colliding transmissions aborted, reducing channel wastage

- collision detection:
  - easy in wired LANs: measure signal strengths, compare transmitted, received signals
  - difficult in wireless LANs: received signal strength overwhelmed by local transmission strength
- human analogy: the polite conversationalist

Ethernet CSMA/CD algorithm

1. NIC receives datagram from network layer, creates frame
2. If NIC senses channel idle, starts frame transmission. If NIC senses channel busy, waits until channel idle, then transmits.
3. If NIC transmits entire frame without detecting another transmission, NIC is done with frame !
4. If NIC detects another transmission while transmitting, aborts and sends jam signal
5. After aborting, NIC enters *binary (exponential) backoff:*
   - after *m*th collision, NIC chooses *K* at random from $\{0, 1, 2, \ldots, 2^m-1\}$. NIC waits $K \cdot 512$ bit times, returns to Step 2
   - longer backoff interval with more collisions

CSMA/CD efficiency

- T_{prop} = max prop delay between 2 nodes in LAN
- t_{trans} = time to transmit max-size frame

$$efficiency = \frac{1}{1 + 5t_{prop}/t_{trans}}$$

- efficiency goes to 1
  - as t_{prop} goes to 0
  - as t_{trans} goes to infinity
- better performance than ALOHA: and simple, cheap, decentralized!

Taking turns" MAC protocols

hannel partitioning MAC protocols:
- share channel *efficiently* and *fairly* at high load
- inefficient at low load: delay in channel access, 1/N bandwidth allocated even if only 1 (one) active node!

andom access MAC protocols
- efficient at low load: single node can fully utilize channel
- high load: collision overhead

'taking turns" protocols
look for best of both worlds!

polling:

- master node "invites" slave nodes to transmit in turn
- typically used with "dumb" slave devices
- concerns:
  - polling overhead
  - latency
  - single point of failure (master)

token passing:

- control *token* passed from one node to next sequentially.
- token message
- concerns:
  - token overhead
  - latency
  - single point of failure (token)

Summary of MAC protocols

- *channel partitioning,* by time, frequency or code
  - Time Division, Frequency Division
- *random access* (dynamic),
  - ALOHA, S-ALOHA, CSMA, CSMA/CD
  - carrier sensing: easy in some technologies (wire), hard in others (wireless)
  - CSMA/CD used in Ethernet
  - CSMA/CA used in 802.11
- *taking turns*
  - polling from central site, token passing
  - Bluetooth, FDDI, token ring

6.4 LANs
- addressing, ARP

MAC addresses and ARP

- 32-bit IP address:
  - *network-layer* address for interface
  - used for layer 3 (network layer) forwarding
- MAC (or LAN or physical or Ethernet) address:
  - function: *used 'locally" to get frame from one interface to another physically-connected interface (same network, in IP-addressing sense)*
  - 48 bit MAC address (for most LANs) burned in NIC ROM, also sometimes software settable
  - e.g.: 1A-2F-BB-76-09-AD

hexadecimal (base 16) notation
(each "numeral" represents 4 bits)

LAN addresses (more)

- MAC address allocation administered by IEEE
- manufacturer buys portion of MAC address space (to assure uniqueness)
- analogy:
  - MAC address: like Social Security Number
  - IP address: like postal address
- MAC flat address ➜ portability
  - can move LAN card from one LAN to another
- IP hierarchical address *not* portable
  - address depends on IP subnet to which node is attached

ARP: address resolution protocol

ARP table: each IP node (host, router) on LAN has table
- IP/MAC address mappings for some LAN nodes:
  < IP address; MAC address; TTL>
- TTL (Time To Live): time after which address mapping will be forgotten (typically 20 min)

6.4 LANs
- addressing, ARP
- Ethernet
- switches
- VLANS

Ethernet

"dominant" wired LAN technology:

- single chip, multiple speeds (e.g., Broadcom BCM5761)
- first widely used LAN technology
- simpler, cheap
- kept up with speed race: 10 Mbps – 10 Gbps

Ethernet: physical topology

- *bus:* popular through mid 90s
  - all nodes in same collision domain (can collide with each other)
- *star:* prevails today
  - active *switch* in center
  - each "spoke" runs a (separate) Ethernet protocol (nodes do not collide with each other)

Ethernet frame structure

sending adapter encapsulates IP datagram (or other network layer protocol packet) in Ethernet fram

preamble:

- 7 bytes with pattern 10101010 followed by one byte with pattern 10101011
- used to synchronize receiver, sender clock rates

- *addresses:* 6 byte source, destination MAC addresses
  - if adapter receives frame with matching destination address, or with broadcast address (e.g. ARP packet), it passes data in frame to network layer protocol
  - otherwise, adapter discards frame
- *type:* indicates higher layer protocol (mostly IP but others possible, e.g., Novell IPX, AppleTalk)
- *CRC:* cyclic redundancy check at receiver
  - error detected: frame is dropped

Ethernet: unreliable, connectionless

- *connectionless:* no handshaking between sending and receiving NICs
- *unreliable:* receiving NIC doesn't send acks or nacks to sending NIC
  - data in dropped frames recovered only if initial sender uses higher layer rdt (e.g., TCP), otherwise dropped data lost
- Ethernet's MAC protocol: unslotted *CSMA/CD with binary backoff*

:thernet switch

link-layer device: takes an *active* role

- store, forward Ethernet frames
- examine incoming frame's MAC address, selectively forward frame to one-or-more outgoing links when frame is to be forwarded o segment, uses CSMA/CD to access segment

transparent

- hosts are unaware of presence of switches

plug-and-play, self-learning

- switches do not need to be configured

Switch: *multiple* simultan

- hosts have dedicated, direct connection to switch
- switches buffer packets
- Ethernet protocol used on *each* incoming link, but no collisions; full duplex
  - each link is its own collision domain
- *switching:* A-to-A' and B-to-B' can transmit simultaneously, without collisions

Switch: self-learni

- switch *learns* which hosts can be reached through which interfaces
  - when frame received, switch "learns" location of sender: incoming LAN segment
  - records sender/location pair in switch table

Switch: frame filtering/forwarding

when frame received at switch:

1. record incoming link, MAC address of sending host
2. index switch table using MAC destination address
3. if entry found for destination
   then {
   if destination on segment from which frame arrived
   then drop frame
   else forward frame on interface indicated by entry
   }
   else flood /* forward on all interfaces except arriving interface */

Switches vs. routers

both are store-and-forward:

- *routers:* network-layer devices (examine network-layer headers)
- *switches:* link-layer devices (examine link-layer headers)

both have forwarding tables:

- *routers:* compute tables using routing algorithms, IP addresses
- *switches:* learn forwarding table using flooding, learning, MAC addresses

VLANs

Virtual Local Area Network

switch(es) supporting VLAN capabilities can be configured to define multiple ***virtual*** LANs over single physical LAN infrastructure.

Port-based VLAN

- *traffic isolation:* frames to/from ports 1-8 can *only* reach ports 1-8
  - can also define VLAN based on MAC addresses of endpoints, rather than switch port
- dynamic membership: ports can be dynamically assigned among VLANs

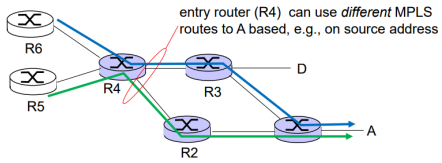
- forwarding between VLANS: done via routing (just as with separate switches)
  - in practice vendors sell combined switches plus routers

6.5 link virtualization: MPLS

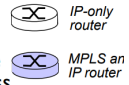
Multiprotocol label switching (MPLS)

- initial goal: high-speed IP forwarding using fixed length label (instead of IP address)
  - fast lookup using fixed length identifier (rather than shortest prefix matching)
  - borrowing ideas from Virtual Circuit (VC) approach
  - but IP datagram still keeps IP address!

MPLS versus IP paths



- *IP routing:* path to destination determined by destination address alone
- *MPLS routing:* path to destination can be based on source *and* destination address
  - *fast reroute:* precompute backup routes in case of link failure



MPLS forwarding tables

in label	out label	dest	out interface
	10	A	0
	12	D	0
	8	A	1

in label	out label	dest	out interface
10	6	A	1
12	9	D	0

MPLS signaling

- modify OSPF, IS-IS link-state flooding protocols to carry info used by MPLS routing,
  - e.g., link bandwidth, amount of "reserved" link bandwidth
- *entry MPLS router uses RSVP-TE signaling protocol to set up MPLS forwarding at downstream routers*

Chapter 7
Wireless and
Mobile Networks

7.1 Introduction

Wireless network taxonomy

	single hop	multiple hops
infrastructure (e.g., APs)	host connects to base station (WiFi, WiMAX, cellular) which connects to larger Internet	host may have to relay through several wireless nodes to connect to larger Internet: *mesh net*
no infrastructure	no base station, no connection to larger Internet (Bluetooth, ad hoc nets)	no base station, no connection to larger Internet. May have to relay to reach other a given wireless node MANET, VANET

7.2 Wireless links, characteristics
- CDMA

Wireless Link Characteristics (1)

important differences from wired link ….

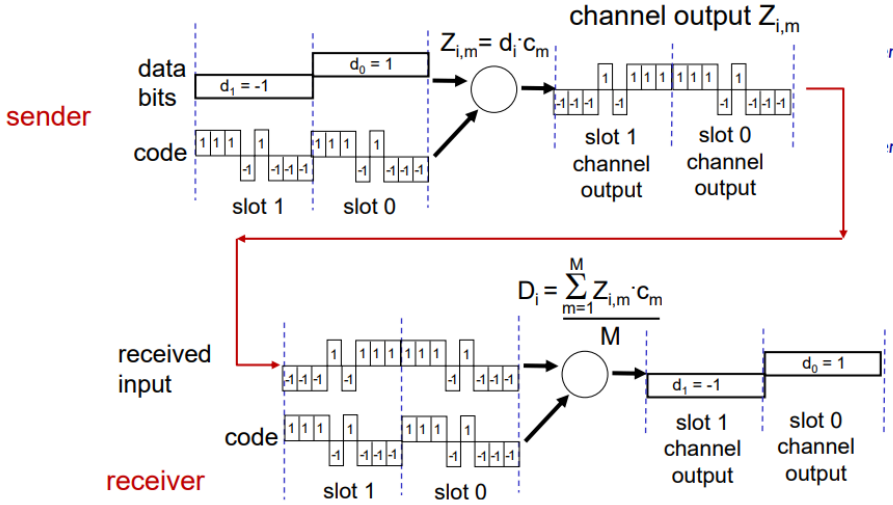
- *decreased signal strength:* radio signal attenuates as it propagates through matter (path loss)
- *interference from other sources:* standardized wireless network frequencies (e.g., 2.4 GHz) shared by other devices (e.g., phone); devices (motors) interfere as well
- *multipath propagation:* radio signal reflects off objects ground, arriving ad destination at slightly different times

- SNR: signal-to-noise ratio
  - larger SNR – easier to extract signal from noise (a "good thing")
- *SNR versus BER tradeoffs*
  - *given physical layer:* increase power -> increase SNR->decrease BER
  - *given SNR:* choose physical layer that meets BER requirement, giving highest thruput
    - SNR may change with mobility: dynamically adapt physical layer (modulation technique, rate)

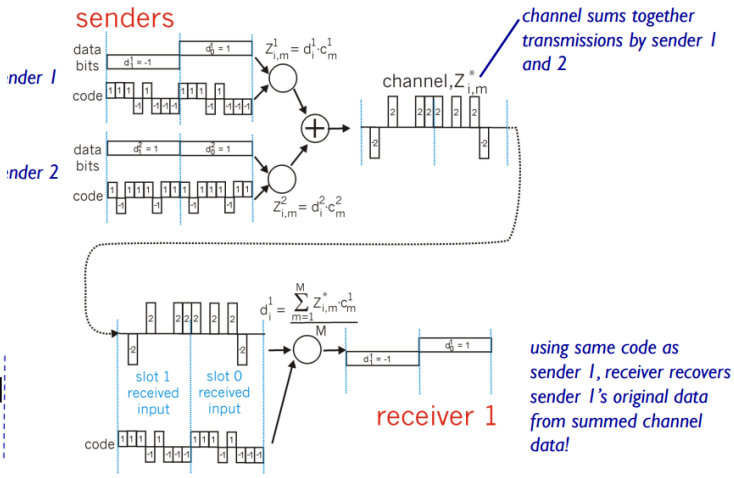
Code Division Multiple Access (CDMA)

- unique "code" assigned to each user; i.e., code set partitioning
  - all users share same frequency, but each user has own "chipping" sequence (i.e., code) to encode data
  - allows multiple users to "coexist" and transmit simultaneously with minimal interference (if codes are "orthogonal")
- *encoded signal* = (original data) X (chipping sequence)
- *decoding*: inner-product of encoded signal and chipping sequence

CDMA encode/decode



CDMA: two-sender interference


senders
channel sums together transmissions by sender 1 and 2
channel, $Z^*_{i,m}$
using same code as sender 1, receiver recovers sender 1's original data from summed channel data!
receiver 1

7.3 IEEE 802.11 wireless LANs ("Wi-Fi")

802.11b
- 2.4-5 GHz unlicensed spectrum
- up to 11 Mbps
- direct sequence spread spectrum (DSSS) in physical layer
  - all hosts use same chipping code

802.11a
- 5-6 GHz range
- up to 54 Mbps

802.11g
- 2.4-5 GHz range
- up to 54 Mbps

802.11n: multiple antennae
- 2.4-5 GHz range
- up to 200 Mbps

- all use CSMA/CA for multiple access
- all have base-station and ad-hoc network versions

802.11 LAN architecture

- wireless host communicates with base station
  - base station = access point (AP)
- Basic Service Set (BSS) (aka "cell") in infrastructure mode contains:
  - wireless hosts
  - access point (AP): base station
  - ad hoc mode: hosts only

802.11: Channels, association

- 802.11b: 2.4GHz-2.485GHz spectrum divided into 11 channels at different frequencies
  - AP admin chooses frequency for AP
  - interference possible: channel can be same as that chosen by neighboring AP!
- host: must *associate* with an AP
  - scans channels, listening for *beacon frames* containing AP's name (SSID) and MAC address
  - selects AP to associate with
  - may perform authentication [Chapter 8]
  - will typically run DHCP to get IP address in AP's subnet

802.11: passive/active scanning

passive scanning:

(1) beacon frames sent from APs
(2) association Request frame sent: H1 to selected AP
(3) association Response frame sent from selected AP to H1

active scanning:

(1) Probe Request frame broadcast from H1
(2) Probe Response frames sent from APs
(3) Association Request frame sent: H1 to selected AP
(4) Association Response frame sent from selected AP to H1

IEEE 802.11: multiple access

- avoid collisions: 2^+ nodes transmitting at same time
- 802.11: CSMA - sense before transmitting
  - don't collide with ongoing transmission by other node
- 802.11: *no* collision detection!
  - difficult to receive (sense collisions) when transmitting due to weak received signals (fading)
  - can't sense all collisions in any case: hidden terminal, fading
  - goal: *avoid collisions:* CSMA/C(ollision)A(voidance)

802.11 MAC Protocol: CSMA/CA

802.11 sender

1 if sense channel idle for **DIFS** then
  transmit entire frame (no CD)
2 if sense channel busy then
  start random backoff time
  timer counts down while channel idle
  transmit when timer expires
  if no ACK, increase random backoff interval, repeat 2

802.11 receiver

- if frame received OK
  return ACK after **SIFS** (ACK needed due to hidden terminal problem)

802.11: advanced capabilities

Rate adaptation

- base station, mobile dynamically change transmission rate (physical layer modulation technique) as mobile moves, SNR varies

power management

- node-to-AP: "I am going to sleep until next beacon frame"
  - AP knows not to transmit frames to this node
  - node wakes up before next beacon frame
- beacon frame: contains list of mobiles with AP-to-mobile frames waiting to be sent
  - node will stay awake if AP-to-mobile frames to be sent; otherwise sleep again until next beacon frame

7.4 Cellular Internet access

- architecture
- standards (e.g., 3G, LTE)

– cell

- covers geographical region
- *base station* (BS) analogous to 802.11 AP
- *mobile users* attach to network through BS
- *air-interface:* physical and link layer protocol between mobile and BS

- MSC

- connects cells to wired tel. net.
- manages call setup (more later!)
- handles mobility (more later!)

Two techniques for sharing mobile-to-BS radio spectrum

- combined FDMA/TDMA: divide spectrum in frequency channels, divide each channel into time slots
- CDMA: code division multiple access

3G (voice+data)

Key insight: new cellular data network operates *in parallel* (except at edge) with existing cellular voice network

- voice network *unchanged* in core
- data network operates in parallel

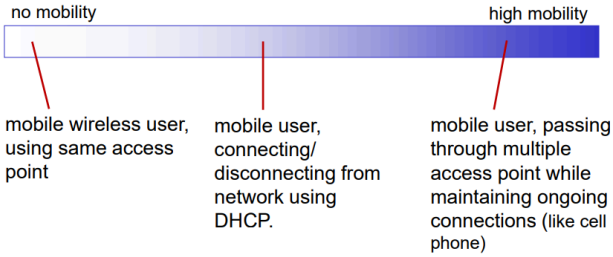
4G: differences from 3G

- all IP core: IP packets tunneled (through core IP network) from base station to gateway
- no separation between voice and data – all traffic carried over IP core to gateway

7.5 Principles: addressing and routing to mobile users

What is mobility?

- spectrum of mobility, from the *network* perspective:


no mobility
high mobility
mobile wireless user, using same access point
mobile user, connecting/ disconnecting from network using DHCP.
mobile user, passing through multiple access point while maintaining ongoing connections (like cell phone)

Mobility: vocabulary

home network: permanent "home" of mobile (e.g., 128.119.40/24)

home agent: entity that will perform mobility functions on behalf of mobile, when mobile is remote

visited network: network in which mobile currently resides (e.g., 79.129.13/24)

care-of-address: address in visited network. (e.g., 79,129.13.2)

permanent address: address in home network, *can always* be used to reach mobile e.g., 128.119.40.186

permanent address: remains constant (e.g., 128.119.40.186)

foreign agent: entity in visited network that performs mobility functions on behalf of mobile.

correspondent: wants to communicate with mobile

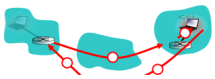
Mobility: approaches

- *let routing handle it:* routers advertise permanent address of mobile-in-residence via usual routing table exchange.
  - routing table indicates where each mobile located
  - no changes to end-systems
- *let end-systems handle it:*
  - *indirect routing:* communication from correspondent to mobile goes through home agent, then forwarded to remote
  - *direct routing:* correspondent gets foreign address of mobile, sends directly to mobile

not scalable to millions of mobiles

Indirect Routing: comments

- mobile uses two addresses:
  - permanent address: used by correspondent (hence mobile location is *transparent* to correspondent)
  - care-of-address: used by home agent to forward datagrams to mobile
- foreign agent functions may be done by mobile itself
- triangle routing: correspondent-home-network-mobile
  - inefficient when correspondent, mobile are in same network



Indirect routing: moving between networks

- suppose mobile user moves to another network
  - registers with new foreign agent
  - new foreign agent registers with home agent
  - home agent update care-of-address for mobile
  - packets continue to be forwarded to mobile (but with new care-of-address)
- mobility, changing foreign networks transparent: *on going connections can be maintained!*

7.6 Mobile IP
7.7 Handling mobility in cellular networks
7.8 Mobility and higher-layer protocols

Mobile IP

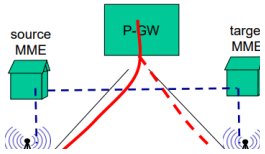
- RFC 3344
- has many features we've seen:
  - home agents, foreign agents, foreign-agent registration, care-of-addresses, encapsulation (packet-within-a-packet)
- three components to standard:
  - indirect routing of datagrams
  - agent discovery
  - registration with home agent

Handling mobility in cellular networks

- *home network:* network of cellular provider you subscribe to (e.g., Sprint PCS, Verizon)
  - *home location register (HLR):* database in home network containing permanent cell phone #, profile information (services, preferences, billing), information about current location (could be in another network)
- *visited network:* network in which mobile currently resides
  - *visitor location register (VLR):* database with entry for each user currently in network
  - could be home network

Handling Mobility in LTE

- Paging: idle UE may move from cell to cell: network does not know where the idle UE is resident
  - paging message from MME broadcast by all eNodeB to locate UE
- handoff: similar to 3G:
  - preparation phase
  - execution phase
  - completion phase



Mobility: cellular versus Mobile IP

cellular element	Comment on cellular element	Mobile IP element
Home system	Network to which mobile user's permanent phone number belongs	**Home network**
Gateway Mobile Switching Center, or "home MSC". Home Location Register (HLR)	Home MSC: point of contact to obtain routable address of mobile user. HLR: database in home system containing permanent phone number, profile information, current location of mobile user, subscription information	**Home agent**
Visited System	Network other than home system where mobile user is currently residing	**Visited network**
Visited Mobile services Switching Center. Visitor Location Record (VLR)	Visited MSC: responsible for setting up calls to/from mobile nodes in cells associated with MSC. VLR: temporary database entry in visited system, containing subscription information for each visiting mobile user	**Foreign agent**
Mobile Station Roaming Number (MSRN), or "roaming number"	Routable address for telephone call segment between home MSC and visited MSC, visible to neither the mobile nor the correspondent.	**Care-of-address**

Chapter 8 Security

8.1 What is network security?

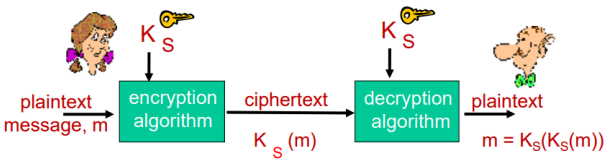
confidentiality: only sender, intended receiver should "understand" message contents
- sender encrypts message
- receiver decrypts message

authentication: sender, receiver want to confirm identity of each other

message integrity: sender, receiver want to ensure message not altered (in transit, or afterwards) without detection

access and availability: services must be accessible and available to users

Symmetric key cryptography



symmetric key crypto: Bob and Alice share same (symmetric) key: K_S
- e.g., key is knowing substitution pattern in mono alphabetic substitution cipher

8.2 Principles of cryptography

m plaintext message
$K_A(m)$ ciphertext, encrypted with key K_A
$m = K_B(K_A(m))$

Breaking an encryption scheme

- cipher-text only attack: Trudy has ciphertext she can analyze
- two approaches:
  - brute force: search through all keys
  - statistical analysis
- known-plaintext attack: Trudy has plaintext corresponding to ciphertext
  - e.g., in monoalphabetic cipher, Trudy determines pairings for a,l,i,c,e,b,o,
- chosen-plaintext attack: Trudy can get ciphertext for chosen plaintext

Simple encryption scheme

substitution cipher: substituting one thing for another
- monoalphabetic cipher: substitute one letter for another

```
plaintext:  abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz
ciphertext: mnbvcxzasdfghjklpoiuytrewq
```

e.g.:
```
Plaintext: bob. i love you. alice
ciphertext: nkn. s gktc wky. mgsbc
```

Encryption key: mapping from set of 26 letters to set of 26 letters

Symmetric key crypto: DES

DES: Data Encryption Standard
- US encryption standard [NIST 1993]
- 56-bit symmetric key, 64-bit plaintext input
- block cipher with cipher block chaining
- how secure is DES?
  - DES Challenge: 56-bit-key-encrypted phrase decrypted (brute force) in less than a day
  - no known good analytic attack
- making DES more secure:
  - 3DES: encrypt 3 times with 3 different keys

AES: Advanced Encryption Standard

- symmetric-key NIST standard, replaced DES (Nov 2001)
- processes data in 128 bit blocks
- 128, 192, or 256 bit keys
- brute force decryption (try each key) taking 1 sec on DES, takes 149 trillion years for AES

Prerequisite: modular arithmetic

- x mod n = remainder of x when divide by n
- facts:
  - [(a mod n) + (b mod n)] mod n = (a+b) mod n
  - [(a mod n) - (b mod n)] mod n = (a-b) mod n
  - [(a mod n) * (b mod n)] mod n = (a*b) mod n
- thus
  - $(a \bmod n)^d \bmod n = a^d \bmod n$
- example: x=14, n=10, d=2:
  - $(x \bmod n)^d \bmod n = 4^2 \bmod 10 = 6$
  - $x^d = 14^2 = 196 \quad x^d \bmod 10 = 6$

Why $K_B^-(K_B^+(m)) = m = K_B^+(K_B^-(m))$?

follows directly from modular arithmetic:

$(m^e \bmod n)^d \bmod n = m^{ed} \bmod n$

$= m^{de} \bmod n$

$= (m^d \bmod n)^e \bmod n$

Public Key Cryptography

symmetric key crypto

- requires sender, receiver know shared secret key
- Q: how to agree on key in first place (particularly if never "met")?

public key crypto

- radically different approach [Diffie-Hellman76, RSA78]
- sender, receiver do *not* share secret key
- *public* encryption key known to *all*
- *private* decryption key known only to receiver

RSA: Creating public/private key pair

1. choose two large prime numbers *p, q.* (e.g., 1024 bits each)
2. compute $n = pq$, $z = (p-1)(q-1)$
3. choose e (with $e<n$) that has no common factors with z (e, z are "relatively prime").
4. choose d such that $ed-1$ is exactly divisible by z. (in other words: $ed \bmod z = 1$).
5. *public* key is $\underbrace{(n,e)}_{K_B^+}$. *private* key is $\underbrace{(n,d)}_{K_B^-}$.

Public key encryption algorithms

requirements:

1. need $K_B^+(\cdot)$ and $K_B^-(\cdot)$ such that $K_B^-(K_B^+(m)) = m$
2. given public key K_B^+, it should be impossible to compute private key K_B^-

RSA: Rivest, Shamir, Adelson algorithm

RSA: encryption, decryption

0. given (n,e) and (n,d) as computed above
1. to encrypt message m ($<n$), compute $c = m^e \bmod n$
2. to decrypt received bit pattern, c, compute $m = c^d \bmod n$

magic happens! $m = (\underbrace{m^e \bmod n}_{c})^d \bmod n$

Why is RSA secure?

- suppose you know Bob's public key (n,e). How hard is it to determine d?
- essentially need to find factors of n without knowing the two factors p and q
  - fact: factoring a big number is hard

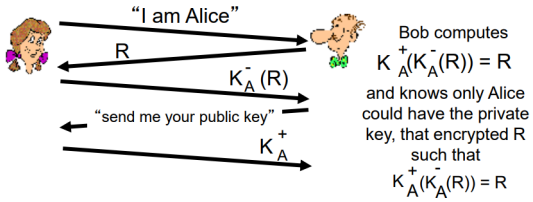
8.3 Message integrity, *authentication*

Authentication: ap5.0

ap4.0 requires shared symmetric key

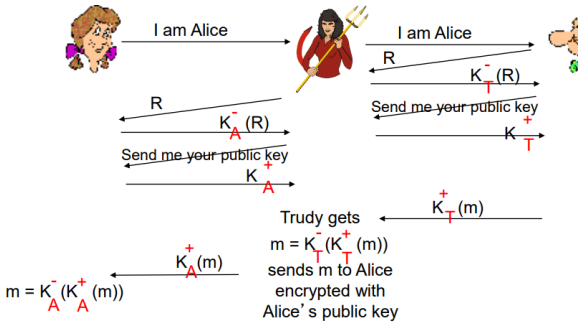
- can we authenticate using public key techniques?

ap5.0: use nonce, public key cryptography



ap5.0: security hole

man (or woman) in the middle attack: Trudy poses as Alice (to Bob) and as Bob (to Alice)



8.4 Securing e-mail

8.5 Securing TCP connections: SSL

8.6 Network layer security: IPsec

8.7 Securing wireless LANs

8.8 Operational security: firewalls and IDS

Digital signatures

cryptographic technique analogous to hand-written signatures:

- sender (Bob) digitally signs document, establishing he is document owner/creator.
- *verifiable, nonforgeable:* recipient (Alice) can prove to someone that Bob, and no one else (including Alice), must have signed document

Digital signatures

- suppose Alice receives msg m, with signature: m, $K_B^-(m)$
- Alice verifies m signed by Bob by applying Bob's public key K_B^+ to $K_B^+(K_B^-(m))$ then checks $K_B^+(K_B^-(m)) = m$.
- If $K_B^+(K_B^-(m)) = m$, whoever signed m must have used Bob's private key.

Alice thus verifies that:

- Bob signed m
- no one else signed m
- Bob signed m and not m '

non-repudiation:

- ✓ Alice can take m, and signature $K_B^-(m)$ to court and prove that Bob signed m

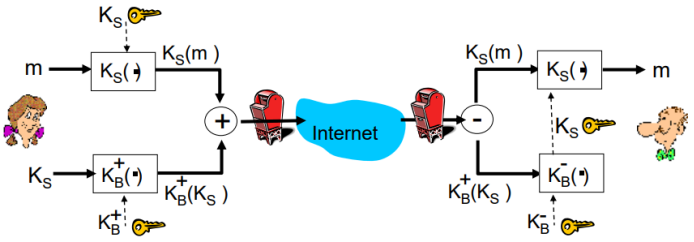
Message digests

Hash function properties:

- many-to-1
- produces fixed-size msg digest (fingerprint)
- given message digest x, computationally infeasible to find m such that x = H(m)

Secure e-mail

Alice wants to send confidential e-mail, m, to Bob.



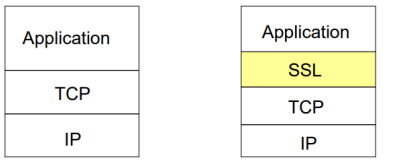
Alice:

- generates random *symmetric* private key, K_S
- encrypts message with K_S (for efficiency)
- also encrypts K_S with Bob's public key
- sends both $K_S(m)$ and $K_B(K_S)$ to Bob

SSL: Secure Sockets Layer

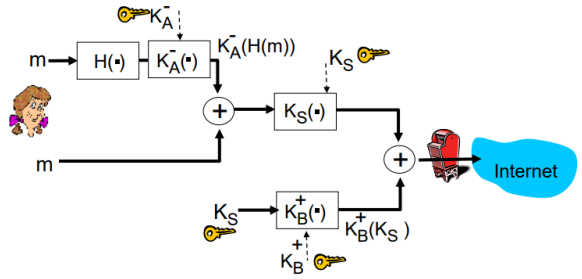
- widely deployed security protocol
  - supported by almost all browsers, web servers
  - https
  - billions $/year over SSL
- mechanisms: [Woo 1994], implementation: Netscape
- variation -TLS: transport layer security, RFC 2246
- provides
  - *confidentiality*
  - *integrity*
  - *authentication*
- original goals:
  - Web e-commerce transactions
  - encryption (especially credit-card numbers)
  - Web-server authentication
  - optional client authentication
  - minimum hassle in doing business with new merchant
- available to all TCP applications
  - secure socket interface

SSL and TCP/IP



- SSL provides application programming interface (API) to applications
- C and Java SSL libraries/classes readily available

Could do something like PGP:



- but want to send byte streams & interactive data
- want set of secret keys for entire connection
- want certificate exchange as part of protocol: handshake phase

Real SSL: handshake

Purpose

1. server authentication
2. negotiation: agree on crypto algorith
3. establish keys
4. client authentication (optional)

Key derivation

- considered bad to use same key for more than one cryptographic operation
  - use different keys for message authentication code (MAC) and encryption
- four keys:
  - K_c = encryption key for data sent from client to server
  - M_c = MAC key for data sent from client to server
  - K_s = encryption key for data sent from server to client
  - M_s = MAC key for data sent from server to client
- keys derived from key derivation function (KDF)
  - takes master secret and (possibly) some additional random data and creates the keys

Sequence numbers

- *problem:* attacker can capture and replay record or re-order records
- *solution:* put sequence number into MAC:
  - MAC = MAC(M_x, sequence||data)
  - note: no sequence number field
- *problem:* attacker could replay all records
- *solution:* use nonce

04 phases to implementing SSL: a simple secure channel

- *handshake:* Alice and Bob use their certificates, private keys to authenticate each other and exchange shared secret
- *key derivation:* Alice and Bob use shared secret to derive set of keys
- *data transfer:* data to be transferred is broken up into series of records
- *connection closure:* special messages to securely close connection